

Designing an ICT solution for a multi-actor environment: the KMP project experimentation

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Abstract:

The objective of this article is to show how the design methodology we experimented allows the creation of both actionable and theoretical knowledge and the reinforcement of both types of knowledge. Especially we intend to demonstrate that the design methodology we built enables to originate a generative dance between theoretical and actionable knowledge, and to solve practical problems in cross-disciplinary, heterogeneous communities from a range of organizations (firms and research laboratories). In order to demonstrate this proposal our article will lean on a specific design research conducted three years ago: the Knowledge Management Platform project (KMP project). Its objective was to design **an ICT solution in a specific case of a multi-actor environment**. More specifically, the KMP project aimed to build a semantic web service of competencies in order to enhance exchange and combination dynamics of knowledge within the Telecom cluster of Sophia Antipolis (Alpes-Maritimes, France) thanks to an interactive mapping of competencies.

The argument is organized as follows. First, we explore design research methodologies in management studies and more specifically recent developments of ICT tools building. Indeed, designing an ICT solution requires a specific attention on use. This leads us to dissociate the designer world from user world. Thus, the key success of an innovation depends on the co-evolution and the convergence of design and use around boundary objects developed during this process. The argument then turns to the KMP experimentation. Finally, we expose and discuss the KMP results. The discussion firstly focuses on the emergence and the development of boundary objects. Then, we analyze how knowledge is both produced and memorized in these boundary objects.

The gap between theory and practice is a persistent and difficult problem for academics and practitioners in the field of management. According to Van Aken (2004), there are serious doubts about the actual relevance of management theory as developed by the academic community. More generally, academic research has a serious utilization problem. Van de Ven and Johnson (2006) identify three ways in which the gap between theory and practice can be framed: first it is typically framed as a knowledge transfer problem; a second approach considers theory and practice as distinct but complementary kinds of knowledge; this leads to a third view “*that the gap between theory and practice is a knowledge production problem*” (ibid: p803). In this perspective, a new figure of “engaged scholarship”, in which researchers and practitioners coproduce knowledge has emerged in the 90’s (Hatchuel 1994; David 2000; Van Haken 2005; Van de Ven and Johnson 2006). This new figure, called “*mode 2 knowledge production*” (Gibbons *et al.* 1994), is multidisciplinary and aims at solving complex and relevant field problems.

Based on the seminal work of Simon (1969; 1996) and following this line of thought, many scholars suggest that “design” is an ideal-typical mode 2 of research (David 2000; Romme 2003; Van Aken 2005). David (2000) suggests that the central concern of management research should be a general problem of design. Design research develops knowledge at the service of action. The term design is chosen to underline the orientation on building knowledge to solve real-world problems. Hatchuel (2001) and Van de Ven and Johnson (2006) emphasize that design research requires clear objectives and a careful arbitrage of the identities of roles of participants, rules of engagement and dissemination and use of study findings. The objective of this paper is to propose a methodology to implement a design research in the specific case of the building of an artifact. We argue that the construction of an artifact allows close interaction between scholars and practitioners, an emergent process of arbitrage in which researchers and practitioners engage with one another to coproduce the solutions and both theoretical and practical knowledge in the field of management.

In order to demonstrate this proposal our article will lean on a specific design research conducted five years ago: the Knowledge Management Platform project (KMP project). Its objective was to design **an ICT solution in a specific case of a multi-actor environment**. More specifically, the KMP project aimed to build a semantic web service of competencies in order to enhance exchange and combination dynamics of knowledge within the Telecom cluster of Sophia Antipolis (Alpes-Maritimes, France) thanks to an interactive mapping of competencies. Indeed, this cluster had to face two main problems due to its specific multi-

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technological activity (micro-electronics, information technology and telecommunications): on the one hand, a problem of knowledge visibility and, on the other hand, a problem of missing link among widely distributed types of knowledge within the cluster. This project wins hands down from practitioners. At the present time, both practitioners and the PACA region support it and set it up in a pre-industrialization phase. In this perspective, we can say that this project is a successful design research, having produced actionable knowledge. However, this experimentation has shown that production of actionable knowledge is strongly linked with the creation of theoretical knowledge.

In this perspective, the objective of this article is to show how the design methodology we experimented allowed the creation of both actionable and theoretical knowledge and the reinforcement of these two types of knowledge. More specifically, we intend to demonstrate that this design methodology enables to originate a generative dance between theoretical knowledge and actionable knowledge and to solve practical problems in cross-disciplinary, heterogeneous communities from a range of organizations (firms and research laboratories). The argument is organized as follows. First, we explore design research methodologies in management studies and more specifically recent developments of ICT tools building. Indeed, designing an ICT solution requires a specific attention on use. The argument then turns to the KMP experimentation. Finally, we expose and discuss the KMP results. This discussion focuses on the emergence and the development of boundary objects, and their role in the creation of both theoretical and actionable knowledge.

1. The design methodology: an iterative process of co-designing

Design methodologies are specific modes of engaging in research. Especially, they are characterized by an active intervention process in the system in which the researchers act. Because academic studies propose distinct views on intervention process and address the issue of the model of intervention, we have chosen to construct our design methodology on two parts. Firstly, we focus on design research methodologies in order to identify the main steps for the intervention process. Secondly, we discuss the process of design in the specific case of an ICT solution.

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1.1. The process of design methodology: its main steps

In this part, we discuss two different but complementary process design approaches which focus on a specific aspect of the intervention process: those of Hatchuel and Molet (1986) which are more practitioner oriented and those of Romme and Endenburg (2006) which are more theoretically oriented.

1.1.1. The intervention process: Hatchuel and Molet (1986)

Hatchuel and Molet (1986) have distinguished five phases in the intervention process:

(i) *The “feeling of discomfort”*: this step could also be called the perception of the issue. During this step, researchers and practitioners co-construct the issue. There is a confrontation between the researcher’s theoretical concepts and the empirical issue.

(ii) *Building a ‘rational myth’*: it consists of the transformation of perceptions into concepts and data and of elaborating a theoretical model that allows the intervention.

(iii) *The experimental phase: intervention and interaction*: the two preceding steps enable to insert a new stimulus into the organization. During this experimental step, practitioners’ reactions can induce modifications of both the tool and the organization.

(iv) *The inductive phase: portraying a set of logics*. It consists in creating a learning process both for the researchers and the different practitioners about the organization’s local logics.

(v) *The change process: knowledge versus implementation*. This process induces, thanks to the implementation of the tool, the crossed transformation of the organization and the tool and the development of knowledge on these two levels. It also allows a return, in a constructive way, to a new understanding of the first phase i.e. the perception of the issue.

According to the writers’ point of view, intervening in an organization requires five steps that serve as guidelines for the researcher. These steps reveal in fact that the intervention calls for two main phases: firstly, to co-construct the issue with the practitioners with huge references on theory; secondly, to elaborate a tool that will support the intervention process.

However, the link between these two main phases is not clearly explained. We propose now to refer to Romme and Endenburg (2006) in order to enrich the comprehension of the link between the concrete research project and the theory and/or the previous studies.

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1.1.2. The design process: Romme and Endenburg (2006)

Romme and Endenburg (2006) suggest a science-based approach to organization design in five components:

(i) *Organization science* is “the cumulative body of key concepts, theories, and experientially verified relationships useful for explaining organizational process and outcomes” (Romme and Endenburg 2006: 288). As such, these chunks of general knowledge provide the theoretical foundation for construction principles.

(ii) *Construction principles* are a “set of imperative propositions, grounded in the state-of-the-art of organization science” (Romme and Endenburg 2006: 288). They serve as a body of knowledge that will guide the elaboration of design rules and so the specific design process at hand. Consequently, construction principles serve to bridge the descriptive nature of scientific propositions and the prescriptive nature of design rules. Obviously, as the set of construction principles may be borrowed from different subfields, it is important to establish that this set is coherent.

(iii) *Design rules* are a “set of detailed guidelines for designing and realizing organizations, grounded in a related set of construction principles”. In other words, design rules are “elaborate solution-oriented guidelines for the design process” (Romme and Endenburg 2006: 288). Hence, they collectively constitute a scheme for the design and may therefore be developed as a coherent set of related rules. In a closer approach, Van Aken (2004; 2005) proposes the concept of ‘technological rules’, which he defined as “a chunk of a general knowledge linking an intervention or artifact with an expected outcome or performance in a certain field of application” (Van Aken 2005: 23). In his definition, Van Aken specifically uses the term ‘general’ in order to stress the idea that it is not a specific solution or a specific situation, but a general prescription for a class of problems. For that reason, we may say that a technological rule is a “mid-range theory”, whose validity is limited to a certain application domain. In the management field, these rules are not algorithmic but heuristic (Van Aken 2004).

(iv) *Organization design* is the “developing representations of the intended organizational system being (re)designed with help of the design rules” (Romme and Endenburg 2006: 289). Thereby, organization design is resulting from the interaction between design rules, the contingencies of the organization and so of the design situation, and at least the preferences of the people engaging in the organization design effort. We may notice here that organization design can be a specific solution or an artifact.

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(v) *Implementation and experimentation*: during this step, the organization design or the artifact is implemented and the researcher evaluates the processes caused by that design.

According to Hatchuel and Molet (1986), Romme and Endenburg (2006) stress the fact that the whole system ought to be regulated through a set of feedbacks. However, because they suggest preceding the design step by specifying what they call “construction principles” and “design rules”, these two authors offer a real complementary view.

1.2. Designing an ICT solution: a uses approach

This section expresses in more detail the design process of an ICT solution. By the way, it explores the interaction between technology and social system, i.e. uses. This question is a fundamental one in the IS (Information System) literature. IS studies generally reflect a particular position on this question (Orlikowski and Iacono 2001), oscillating from a technological position (technological determinism, discrete-entity tool view, autonomous technology) to a social one (strategic choice view, web-based ensemble models). We are favoring conception of the link between technologies and organizations that are more middle-ground approaches as reflected in emergent perspective and socio-technical one. From this point of view, we discuss in this section two main approaches: the structuration theory of technology (Orlikowski 2000) and the actor-network theory (Akrich *et al.* 2002).

1.2.1. A practice lens for studying the use of technology: Orlikowski (2000)

The structurational perspective of technology (Orlikowski 2000; DeSanctis and Poole 1994) is deeply rooted in the works of Giddens (1984). As we have previously seen, this emergent perspective takes a middle-ground position in the IS debate on the link between technologies and organizations. From this point of view, these works give a specific and stimulating definition of technologies and uses.

According to Orlikowski (2000), technologies present two distinctive aspects: the technology as artifact and the use of technology.

- Firstly, technology may be define as a technical artifact, which has been constructed with particular materials and inscribed with developers’ assumptions and knowledge about the world at a point in time. These features are coupled with the spirit of technology, which is defined as “the general intent with regard to values and goals underlying a given set of structural features” (DeSanctis and Poole 1994: 126).

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- Secondly, technology may be termed a technology-in-practice, which refers to the specific structure routinely enacted by individuals as they use the artifact in recurrent ways in their everyday situated activities. In that sense, technology-in-practice may be defined as the set of rules and resources enacted by the users of technology in their recurrent social practice.

This double acceptance of technology has several main consequences (Orlikowski 2000):

- While technology may be defined as a set of physical properties developed by designers, it is only when this technology is used in recurrent social practices that it structures human action.
- When users choose to use a technology, they are also choosing how to interact with that technology. From this point of view, users may, deliberately or inadvertently, use it in ways not anticipated by the developers. The physical properties inscribed in the artifact don't predetermine use of technology. Thus, *“use of technology is not a choice among a closed set of predefined possibilities, but a situated and recursive process of constitution, which may also and at any time ignore such conventional uses or invent new ones.”*
- Use of technology is heavily influenced by the users' understandings of the properties and features of a technology, and these understandings are in turn strongly influenced by the images, descriptions, rhetorics and ideologies enacted by individuals belonging to different contexts.
- Finally, technology-in-practice is a kind of structure situated in the structural properties of social systems. Thus, in interacting with a technology, users mobilize many structurals, those borne by the technology itself, and those deriving from different contexts (group, community, organization, company, etc.) in which their usages fit.

Therefore, these theoretical insights lead us to dissociate the designers' world from the users' world. Effectively, when they develop the artifact, designers enact a set of structural properties that give functionalities. Respectively, in their recurrent use of technology, users may enact technology-in-practice in ways no anticipated by developers.

Developing a method for designing an ICT tool with regard to the structurational theory also leaves us to have a specific concern on the interactions between the designers' world and the users' one. Furthermore, it underlines that technology-in-practice only occurs in recurrent

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social practices: consequently, users must have the technology as soon as possible in the design process.

1.2.2. The users' world: building a socio-technical network

Because they have a specific concern on the role of actors in the design process of an innovation, we mobilize the actor-network theory (ANT) for developing our methodology.

ANT has been used to investigate the success or the failure of a number of technological innovations. In their approach, these scholars criticized both the Schumpeterian model and its entrepreneur's role and the diffusion model of innovation: *"the bringing together of market and technology, through which both inventions and the outlets which transform them into innovations are patiently constructed, is more and more a result of a collective activity and no longer the monopoly of an inspired and dedicated individual"* (Akrich et al. 2002: 189). The key to innovation is thus *"the creation of a powerful enough consortium of actors to carry it through, and when an innovation fails to be taken up this can be considered to reflect on the inability of those involved to construct the necessary network of alliances (the socio-technical network) amongst the other actors"* (Tatnall and Gilding 1999: 961). Network is used in a special way to describe shifting alliances of both human and non-human actors. Innovation has a collective dimension in which users intervene, and is continuously transforming depending on actors who participate to the process of conception. The model of translation proposed (Latour 1986) in this approach maintains that the movement of an innovation through time and space is in the hands of the socio-technical network who may modify it, deflect it, betray it, add to it, appropriate it, or let it drop.

We think that this approach, also named model of intersement, is relevant for designing an ICT solution. On the one hand, it allows understanding the key to success in innovation: *"socio-technical compromises and negotiations are the two key notions which allow this work of mutual adaptation which commands adoption to be understood"* (Akrich et al. 2002: 211). In this approach, *"to adopt an innovation is to adapt it, and this adaptation generally results in a collective elaboration, the fruit of a growing interest"* (Akrich et al. 2002: 209). In other words, the success of an innovation depends on a process of adaptation-adoption depending on the socio-technical environment. This success also relies on the construction of a socio-technical network that will defend and support the process of innovation. This is also the active role played by spokespersons: *"the fate of innovation, its content but also its chances of success, rest entirely on the choice of the representatives or*

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spokespersons who will interact, negotiate to give shape to the project and to transform it until a market is built” (Akrich et al. 2002: 217).

One the other hand, this approach is fruitful by conceiving innovation as the result of a ‘whirlwind’ model, which allows the multiple socio-technical negotiations. In this schema, *“innovation continuously transforms itself according to the trials to which it is submitted i.e. the ‘intersements’ tried out. Each new equilibrium finds itself materialized in the form of a prototype which concretely tests the feasibility of the imagined compromise”* (Akrich et al. 213). Here, the first prototype is rarely the good one, several successive passes (loops) are generally essential.

1.3. The coevolution of design and use: an integrative methodology

The design methodology oriented uses we propose is finally based on two points: first, we introduce users in the designers’ loops through uses scenarios. Second, we separate designers’ world from users’ world in order to better understand the emergence of uses in real work practices.

1.3.1. Building uses scenarios

Since the late 1980s, researchers in human-computer interaction (HCI) have used scenarios as an effective means to discover user needs and better embed the use of artifact in work processes. Thus, uses scenarios can be a means for designers to manage the task-artifact cycle in order to achieve greater usefulness and usability (Carroll et al. 1998). In the HCI field, uses scenarios may be defined as *“working design representation of user experiences with and reactions to system functionality in the context of pursuing a task”* (Jarke et al. 1998: 159). Scenarios focus on the interaction between a system and its environment. Actually based on the distributed cognition theory, uses scenarios often address a narrow work context: classroom, cockpit, and office ...

As we see above, structurational approach stresses the necessity to analyze interactions between actors and artifacts through organizational practices. Here, the relevant context is a wider one: the social system and its structural properties. Thus, we propose to complement interaction uses scenarios (HCI approach) with environmental uses scenarios (structurational approach). However, in order to achieve usability and moreover usefulness, uses scenarios are necessary but not sufficient. As structurational and socio-technical approaches emphasized,

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artifact must be placed in their real organizational practices, in other words, in the users' world.

1.3.2. An integrative uses oriented design methodology

According to the structurational approach, we propose to separate the designers' world from the users' world. The design process (designers' world) is composed of iterative loops (Akrich *et al.* 2002). Its main steps are based on the work of Hatchuel and Molet (1986) and Romme and Endenburg (2006) complemented with uses scenarios.

The users' world represents the socio-technical network that supports the process of innovation. Users-pilots (or lead users) are not the only components of this socio-technical network. As we see above, the success of a design project depends on the art of *interessement* i.e. to enlarge the socio-technical network.

Finally, in our methodology, the project results from the coevolution of these two worlds. We proposed to summarize this methodology as follows:

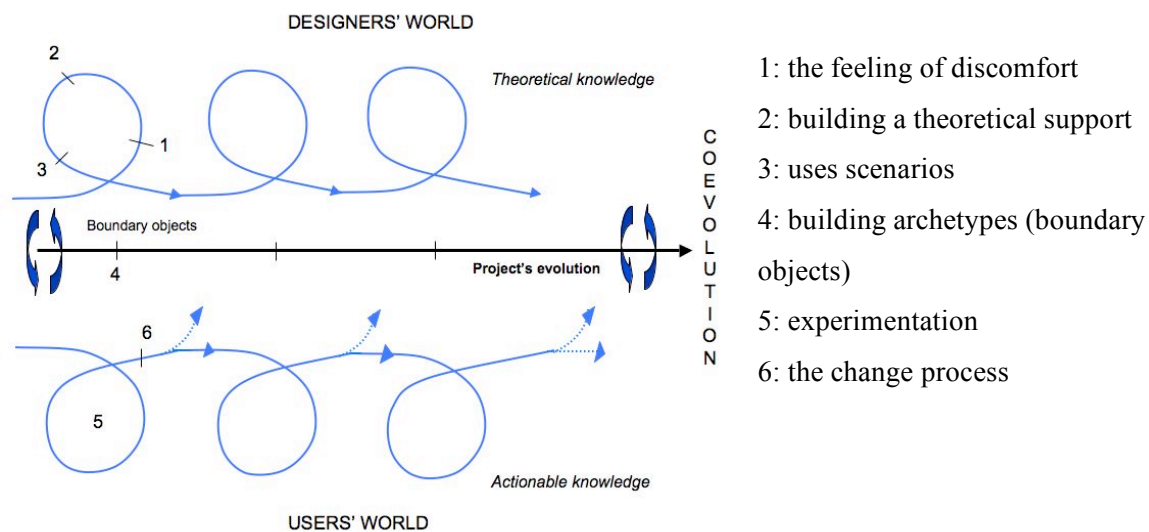


Figure 1: An integrative uses oriented design methodology

To sum up, six main steps compose our design methodology:

1. The feeling of discomfort - to analyze the specific managerial problem to solve.
2. Building a theoretical support - as underlined by Romme and Endenburg (2006), this step consists in building construction principles and design rules.
3. Uses scenarios - based on distributed cognition and structurational approaches.
4. Building archetypes - in the specific case of an ICT tool design, these archetypes consist of the successive prototypes (including user interfaces) resulting from the coevolution of the designers' world and the users' one.

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5. Experimentation - two complementary but no sequential phases composes this step: on the one hand, interesting a growing number of heterogeneous actors (users, professionals, bureaucrats, granters, ...); here, spokespersons play a crucial role; on the other hand, evaluating the successive prototype. According to Jarke *et al.* (1998), a scenario-based evaluation can be used here. It means that the evaluation of the prototype will be based on the same theoretical framework that uses scenarios.

6. The change process - the adoption-adaptation process progressively spreads and transforms the organizational context. These transformations lead to an evolution of the managerial problem, which results in a new design loop. At the same time, these transformations modify the socio-technical network and may ensure its enlargement.

In our perspective, the prototype and, moreover, user interfaces can be viewed as boundary objects at the intersection of the designers' world and the users' one. Boundary objects may be defined as “*objects which are both plastic enough to adapt to local needs and the constraints of the several parties employing them, yet robust enough to maintain a common identity across sites ... There have different meanings in different social worlds but their structure is common enough to more than one world to make them recognizable, a means of translation*” (Star and Griesemer 1989: 393). Thus, these boundary objects result from compromises and negotiations between designers and users; they allow the work of mutual adaptation i.e. the coevolution of both the designers' world and the users' one.

According to Star and Griesemer (1989), these boundary objects intersect two others worlds: both the theoretical and actionable knowledge worlds. In our point of view, boundary objects support the coproduction of these two kinds of knowledge and their coevolution.

2. The KMP Experimentation

This section describes the development and application of a uses oriented design methodology in the specific context of the KMP project.

2.1 The KMP project

This experimentation is located in the scientific park of Sophia Antipolis, on the French Riviera, which is “one of the most highly publicized technology parks which combine establishments of multinational corporations, small and medium-sized firms, and large public research centers and universities, under the auspices of public regional authorities” (Castells and Hall 1994: 85). Sophia Antipolis was created thanks to the support of state institutions, the high level of quality of life provided by the site and the settlement of prestigious

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engineering schools that have constituted a favorable basis to the development of new activities and to the settlement of new companies. Most of these companies were dedicated to ICT and Telecommunications activities. As Longhi (1999) noticed, Sophia Antipolis was a technopole created *ex nihilo*, without capitalization on strong industrial and / or university tradition. It is during the late 80's-early 90's that Telecom standardization organisms (such as the ETSI in 1988 and W3C in 1994) decided to locate their headquarters in Sophia Antipolis. As a consequence of their attractive power, the local Telecom cluster reached a “critical mass” level and high enough diversity to provide for the foundations of a true “innovative milieu”, while the other poles (biotechnology and space) had not yet reached a similar development.

The shocks that characterized the early 1990s had a considerable impact on Sophia Antipolis. First, the shocks struck right at the heart of the project's growth engine, the computer science activities, that led to downsizing in large firms. Secondly, they raised important doubts on the validity of the project's development strategy, which was essentially a marketing strategy aiming at attracting investments from large firms and pointed out the lack of local synergies (Longhi 1999; Lazaric and Thomas 2005). Hence, several clubs and associations were created to facilitate exchanges, to study Technology Park's prospective, mainly in the ICT sector, and to implement collective innovation projects.

The main characteristics of the network dimensions in Sophia Antipolis in 2000 can be summarized in the following way:

- In the Sophilopolitan “Telecom” Cluster, firms are evolving in a multi-technological context covering a wide range of industries from computing and multimedia to space, information processing, on-line services and networking, and microelectronics. We can notice the presence of a large number of famous French and foreign companies like Air France, Amadeus Development Company, Bouygues Télécom, ETSI, France Telecom, Matra Communication Sud, SEMA Group Télécom, Siemens, Atos Ingénierie Intégration ...;
- Given the fact that parent companies are located elsewhere, the Sophilopolitan cluster has always developed strong external links;
- It combines local and global dimensions in modular logics (indeed some of the cluster's firms produce products and / or services that are integrated in wider scale solutions);
- At the local level, the cluster's dynamics rely on the social interactions of several communities, associations, clubs etc., but revealing a lack of effective synergies.

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At the beginning of the 2000's, it became crucial for firms not only to benefit from external links with partners and parent companies but also to establish strong regional links with local high-tech SMEs and key research institutes, in order to sustain innovative capabilities. The KMP Project launched in 2002 by Telecom Valley® (TV is a non profit association founded in 1991 by eight leading actors in telecommunications industry), is illustrative of this evolution.

- The objective of this project is to propose an innovative Knowledge Management Solution including a map of competencies of TV's actors in order to enhance exchange and combination dynamics of knowledge within the Sophia-Antipolis Telecom cluster. KMP is an experimentation of an ICT infrastructure, a web service of competencies. This prototype is a component of a web portal designed for TV members (companies, research and formation institutes involved in ICT domains).

2.2 The KMP methodology: the coevolution of design and uses

After a brief description of the main actors of the KMP project, we try out the process of the design methodology.

2.2.1 The main actors of the KMP project

Representatives from different academic fields composed the project team: economics and management - CNRS (GREDEG) and Telecom Paris (GET)-, computer science and ergonomics -INRIA-, telecommunication sciences -ENST Bretagne (GET)-.

Users were first represented by two commissions of TV (development and partners) and by pilot users. At the beginning of the project, 5 firms (Amadeus, Ariane II, France Télécom R&D, Hewlett Packard, Philips Semiconductors), one local development institute (CAD) and three research institutions (University of Nice, INRIA, GET) were pilot users. In 2003, when the design process of the artifact had really began, new pilots joined the project: IBM, ATOS Origin, Transitiel, Elan IT, Qwam System, Cross Systems and one local development institute (CCI-IRT). Then, others actors participated in the enlargement of the KMP socio-technical network without becoming pilot users: all TV members, club and association of Sophia Antipolis territory, ICT firms located outside the Sophia Antipolis territory.

In this perspective, users are not given *ex ante* but result from the permanent coevolution of the KMP project and the socio-technical network.

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2.2.2 The KMP design methodology process

According to the design methodology previously presented (1.3.), the KMP design methodology process distinguishes the designers' world from the users' world and is composed by iterative co-designing loops (see figure 2).

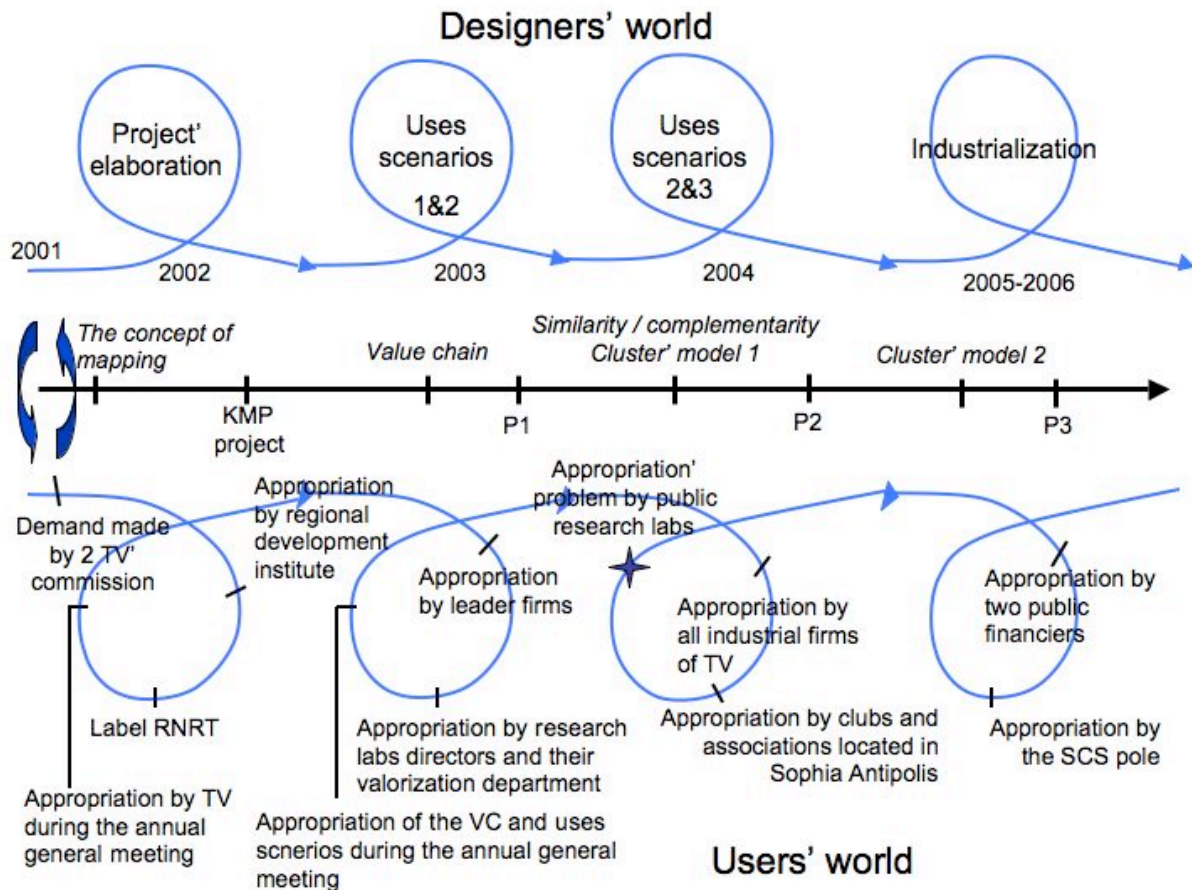


Figure 2: The KMP design methodology process

Four loops compose this project: the first concerns the elaboration of the project and the last the transition phase from the prototype to its industrialization. We describe now these four loops, with a specific focus on two years 2003 and 2004, which are the core years of the design process.

Loop 1 (2001-2002)

During this first loop, this design's team is constituted and the KMP project is elaborated.

1. **The feeling of discomfort:** due to the lack of local links between TV members, two managers of TV association departments (development and partner departments) require

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from researchers to build a map of competencies. This project interests both researchers from social sciences (management and economics) and computer science.

2. Building a theoretical support: the main theoretical field mobilized is the Knowledge Based View. In this field, the organizational knowledge creation is a process of social exchange and combination of knowledge (Kogut 2000). The negotiated environment that a cluster represents is a privileged source of knowledge exchange and cluster structures also provide the stability that can foster collective learning and combinative capabilities. Indeed, many scholars stress the role of proximity (geographical, cognitive, organizational and social) in a cluster in order to foster innovation. These proximities facilitate previous conditions for organizational knowledge-creation (Nahapiet and Ghoshal 1998): (1) the opportunity to make exchange and / or combination, (2) the capacity to anticipate value created by exchange and combination, (3) the motivation to exchange and combine, (4) the capability to combine heterogeneous knowledge.

Based on these construction principles, we identify the following design rules:

- To identify the cluster capital of competencies and its interactions in order to enhance exchange and combination
- To use the KMP project development in order to foster social and cognitive proximities.

3. Uses scenarios: during this loop, we don't develop a prototype but only the project in a general terms. Thus, we don't realize uses scenarios.

4. Building archetypes: during this loop, we built the KMP project in order to respond to the RNRT' call (a French Telecom program called "Réseau National de Recherche en Télécommunication"). At this stage, we identify three main goals: (1) acquire and give a broader visibility of the Telecom Valley community, (2) search and exchange information in the case of inter-firm cooperation, (3) search and exchange information in the case of public research / private research cooperation. In order to meet all these goals, we decide to create a competency-mapping tool. This tool will be mobilized in three generic uses scenarios: (1) describe and storage its competencies, (2) provide structured overview over the actors and competencies in the TV cluster (cluster exploration), (3) look for a partner. 26 exploratory interviews serve to construct these scenarios.

5. Experimentation: The positive evaluation of RNRT offers a broader legitimacy to the project, which was adopted in 2002' annual general meeting of TV. At the same time,

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this project of mapping the territorial competencies was also adopted by regional development institutes which have become strong allies, increasing the project's legitimacy. During this loop, the concept of competencies map has constituted the “*lowest common denominator*”, which satisfies the minimal demands of each stakeholder “*by capturing properties that fall within the minimum acceptable range of all concerned worlds*” (Star and Griesemer 1989: 404). In fact, at the moment, nobody knows how to build this map but everyone, for different reasons, was interested in it. For example, some researchers were interested by developing a KM tool, others by analyzing the knowledge dynamic inside a territory. Concerning industrial managers some of them wanted this map in order to decrease their transactional costs, others to increase their R&D cooperation ... Finally, the regional development institute requires this map to enhance the capacity and performance of cities and regions.

6. The change process: Once the first compromise has been realized about the projet, it is now necessary to build a more precise compromise in order to co-design the ICT solution.

Loop 2 (2003)

During the second loop, the designers' team develop the generic uses scenarios 1 and 2.

1. **The feeling of discomfort:** in 2003, two managerial problems arise. First, how to precisely describe competencies without disclosing strategic know-how? Second, how to resolve the lack of connection inside the cluster generated by a lack of identity and mutual understanding linked to the multi-technological context of this cluster? Indeed, the members of the telecom sophipolitan cluster don't have a clear representation of who they are: “there has always been an ambiguity on whereas Sophia is more telecoms or computer” (member of the TV board).

2. **Building a theoretical support** based on two main theoretical fields: on the one hand, the competency literature both in strategic and human resources, on the other hand, the Resource Based View. Many scholars stress the role of identity to stimulate organizational knowledge creation processes and to coordinate the behavior of its cluster's members (Dyer and Nobeoka 2000; Kogut 2000). Based on the literature, we identify two main construction principles:

- To elaborate a competency model that allows to identify, compare and localize competencies distributed in a cluster. Both strategic and human resources literature

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shows that a competency is built upon four principles: finality, systemic composition, actionability and visibility.

- To identify a shared common space in order to create an identity and then to foster combinative capabilities.

This leads us to build the following design rules:

- A competency can be defined as an *action* -actionable principle-, which mobilizes *resources* (technical, scientific and managerial) –systemic principle- to produce a *delivery* –visibility principle-, which creates value in a *business activity* –finality principle-. In other words, action, resources, delivery and business activity are the four categories that compose the model.
- According to Cook and Huggins (2003)¹, a cluster may be defined as “*geographically proximate firms in vertical and horizontal relationships involving a localised enterprise support infrastructure with shared development vision for business growth, based on competition and cooperation in a specific market field*”.

Based on this definition, a cluster may be represented by its main value chain.

3. **Uses scenarios:** we have built two uses scenarios. The first focuses on competencies description and storage by TV members (firms)². This scenario allows to contextualize the competency model. It shows that the appropriate level for describing competencies inside a cluster is a collective one (team competencies). It also outlines that the depth of description has to be flexible. The second one pays attention to the cluster exploration³. It shows that the actors' identification and their localization in the value chain have to be complemented by the identification of their cooperations.

4. **Building archetypes:** the use of a semantic web service allows to integrate a wide flexibility in the description of competencies. A semantic web is based on ontologies. Ontology defines words constituting the area in which the knowledge will be represented by the diverse actors involved (Gandon 2001). In our experimentation, ontology has a tree structure. Based on the competency model, specific ontologies for each category (action, resources, deliverable, business activity) are built. Ontologies are in abstract forms in their higher levels and become more and more concrete in their lowest levels. These ontologies

¹ “Geographically proximate firms in vertical and horizontal relationships involving a localised enterprise support infrastructure with shared development vision for business growth, based on competition and cooperation in a specific market field”

² 12 interviews have been conducted

³ 7 interviews have been conducted

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ensure the description of competencies depending on actors' interests. The cluster model interface (i.e. the value chain) helps locate: (1) competency: the platform provides dynamic up-to-date cartography of the competencies available in TV and its complementary part i.e. the missing competencies; (2) actor: the platform assists the identification and characterization of the actors of the TV value chain; (3) interaction: the platform supports the detection of existing or potential interactions between the actors of the value chain.

5. **Experimentation:** evaluations have been conducted during 5 steering committees. These steering committees lead to the validation of the prototype 1 (based on scenario 1 and 2) and to the interessement of a growing number of actors. During this year, the main leading firms of the cluster decide to integrate the project as pilot users (see 2.1.1). At the end of the year, 73 competencies have been registered by 9 pilot firms.

6. **The change process:** at the end of the year, during the annual general meeting of TV, all the firms were asked to position themselves on the value chain. As a result, members of TV (not only the pilot firms) adopted this value chain as their own. This share representation of the collective space helped reinforce the collective identity and influences the strategies of cooperation. Consequently, three main changes appeared:

- a. An open access to the prototype to all members of TV resulting in an increasing real-world experiment: prototype 1 was finished and online by January 2004.
- b. A collective building and maintenance of ontologies: as ontologies are vital at the scale of a cluster, playing their full role in allowing flexibility and interoperability, it was decided that ontologies would be built and populated through usage and not by some knowledge engineers.
- c. The impact of the value chain on the growing interest of TV members left us to improve the scenario 2 (explore the cluster) in the next loop.

Loop 3 (2004)

In 2004, we improved the generic uses scenario 2 and developed the uses scenario 3 which resulted in the design of the prototype 2.

1. **The feeling of discomfort:** in 2004, three main problems arose:
 - a) The value chain did not represent all the actors of TV cluster.
 - b) The needs of actors to improve scenario 2 by analyzing the strength and weakness of the cluster and by designing collective strategy for cluster promotion and development.

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c) The search and exchange of information in the case of inter-firms cooperations or public and private research cooperations (uses scenario 3); for example, information allowing to answer queries such as: “I am looking for a partner specialized in encryption algorithms, who has already been involved in joint-projects and has an ISO 9001 certification”.

2. **Building a theoretical support:** according to regional economic studies, the main actors of a cluster are: firms, public research labs, support infrastructures. As specified by the Resource and Competency Based View, it is crucial to identify three kinds of competencies (relational, managerial, technical) in order to choose the good partner. Finally, thanks to the cooperation theory (Richardson 1972), we need to distinguish complementary and similar competencies in order to better understand actors' interest to cooperate.

These principles are translated into the following rules:

- A cluster model may be built by combining principle 1 and 2 (see fig. 3). In this new representation, all members have to be represented depending on their main competencies: technical competencies (firms and public research labs), managerial competencies (e.g. consultants in the domain of law, finance, ...), relational competencies (e.g. local development institutes or clubs and associations in charge of reinforcing exchange in the cluster).
- Competency description must include a description of the cooperations in which they are involved (these competencies represent relational competencies of partners).
- Thanks to our competency model, similarity is related to competencies sharing the same action and resources, whereas complementarity is about competencies sharing the same business activity.

3. **Uses scenario:** in 2004, 40 interviews were conducted (20 with public research labs, 20 with firms) in order to build uses scenarios 3. These scenarios allow to identify a plurality of queries when actors look for a partner. Thus, we distinguish two kinds of queries: simplified queries e.g. a partner possessing one technology; complex queries e.g. a query on a partner possessing two competencies and with each competency items specified. They also show the importance of ontology and the necessity to build a simple interface, which provides browsing capabilities for the ontologies.

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4. **Building archetypes:** prototype 2 includes a new representation of the common space (the cluster model 1 – see figure 3), queries on partner looking for and complex algorithms providing clustering view to analyze the TV cluster. One of these views, called “technological pole”, presents a set of grapes (corresponding to similar competencies) sharing the same technological field e.g. a view of the microelectronics pole. Another view, called “value chain”, presents a set of grapes sharing the same business activity. In this case, each grape is composed of similar competencies. However, these grapes are distributed on different technological fields (e.g. technological poles) and so are complementary with each other (sharing the same business activity). The 3G mobile is an example of a value chain in the TV cluster.

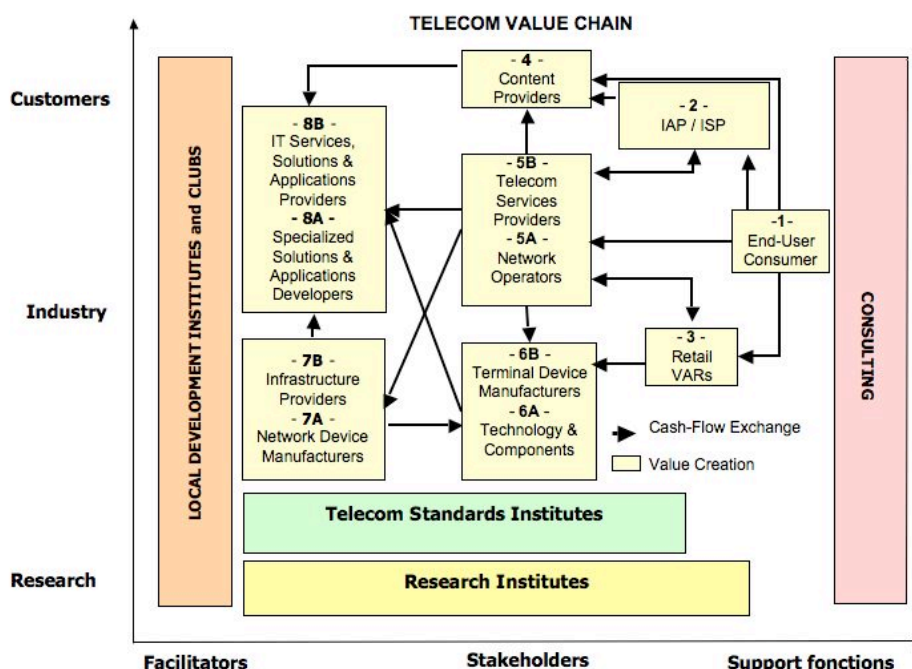


Figure 3: the cluster model 1

5. **Experimentation:** evaluations have been conducted during 4 steering committees and 12 interviews of evaluation based on the scenario approach. These committees and interviews, complemented by the real-world experimentation, give rise to three statements:

- Firms and regional development institutes are still carrying the project. At the beginning of 2004, they look for new founders in order to industrialize it.
- The interest of actors on the two concepts of similarity and complementarity enlarges the socio-technical network of TV by integrating others clubs and associations located in Sophia Antipolis. Thus, every club and association that aimed to enhance synergies

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within the whole sophipolitan cluster has been mapped. Some were classified as aiming to foster complementarities (more market oriented) and others as aiming to foster similarities (more oriented towards technological innovation). This was presented during the “Club’s Day” event by members of KMP’s steering committee and solved many problems of roles and legitimacy of clubs and associations in Sophia Antipolis. Hence, the diffusion of KMP concepts beyond the telecom cluster shows the important needs in terms of representation and of development of exchange and combinative capabilities.

c) Public research labs stress their difficulty to adopt-adapt both the competency model and the cluster model.

6. **The change process:** at the end of this year, TV decided to pursue the project and to become project leader. The research teams still participate tthe project in order to follow the industrialization and more precisely to foster the emergence of a new compromise on both the competency and the cluster model.

Loop 4 (2005)

This last loop corresponds to the pre-industrialization of the project and results in the design of prototype 3. During this phase, we improve and simplify the three uses scenarios.

1. **The feeling of discomfort:** we conduct a new life-cycle in order to solve the public research labs problem of appropriation and to facilitate the pre-industrial phase. The public research labs problem is linked on the one hand to the difficulty to identify a business activity for describing their competencies; as a research laboratory director says: “we work on a very high and abstract level so that we don’t wonder about such problems”; on the other hand, it is due to their lack of visibility in the cluster model 1. Concerning the industrial phase, the main problem is to facilitate the implementation of the KMP solution in other clusters.

2. **Building a theoretical support:** here, we aim to better understand the link between similarity and complementarity of competencies and the exchange and combinative capabilities inside a cluster. According to Kogut (2000: 407) “*Networks offer the benefit of both specialization and variety generation. The superior abilities of markets to generate variety is a commonplace belief... The converse of this statement is that firms are superior vehicles for the accumulation of specialized learning... Specialization and variety are antithetical within the firm, but define complements within a network*”. Thus, networks or clusters offer an interesting heterogeneity of available knowledge for exchange and

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combination among firms. Also called knowledge based coherence, knowledge interesting heterogeneity may be defined as the potential of synergies and new combinations from a diversity of knowledge and competencies (Christensen and Foss 1997; Barlatier 2006). Similarity and complementarity therefore provide a better understanding of the concept of coherence or interesting heterogeneity.

This theoretical framework leads to build new rules for designing a cluster. We maintain the three main categories of actors: facilitators (relational competencies), stakeholders (firms and public research labs who possess technical competencies), consultants (managerial competencies). Each stakeholder is positioned depending on the concept of similarity, which provides views of technological poles. One or more value chains cross these technological sectors. In this case, value chains are not predefined but designed from data storage in the ICT solution. In this perspective, value chains are potential and flexible. They are resulting from queries and are composed of competencies sharing the same business activities. Finally, we improve the competency model by dividing the item ‘business activity’ in three sub-items: generic uses, business sectors, and markets.

3. Uses scenarios: because there are not new uses scenarios, the contextualization of the design rules was realized from interviews of evaluation conducted during the previous loop. These interviews had for example allowed to define generic uses in the specific case of a telecom cluster, such as mobility, security, traceability ...

4. Building archetypes: prototype 3 includes a new representation of the common space (the cluster model 2 –see figure 4-), new interfaces providing clustering views (as technological poles or value chains) and new ontologies of competencies.

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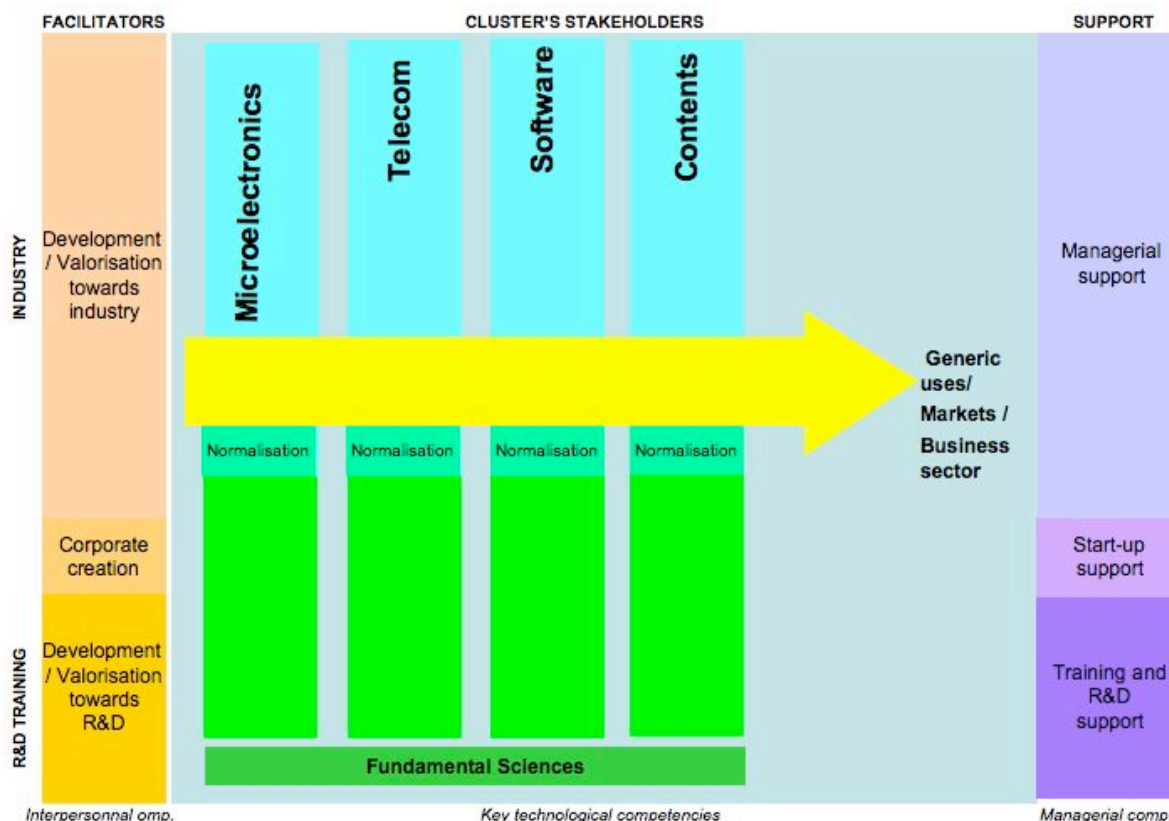


Figure 4: the cluster model 2

5. Experimentation: the new model of cluster, based on the “similarity / complementarity” concepts, was adopted and reused by the PACA region in order to present a national project on competitiveness poles, the “SCS” pole (Secured Communicating Solutions). These concepts have a huge impact by structuring the presentation of cooperation projects within the pole, showing then their impact on clusters’ combinative capabilities and anticipation of created value. This represents an important enlargement of the socio-technical network, which now integrates actors located in all the PACA region, not only in the technopole of Sophia Antipolis. Thanks to this growing interest of actors, two public financiers in charge of territorial development decided to support the industrialization of the KMP project. At the end of this loop, 412 competencies were registered by 63 firms and 4 public research labs.

6. The change process: the change process will be analyzed when the KMP solution, in its industrial version, will be implemented in the telecom cluster. A first version of the KMP solution will be online in July 2007.

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3. Results and Discussion

The previous section shows that both models of competencies and cluster implemented in prototype 2 and 3 have constituted strong boundary objects that allow the emergence and development of socio-technical compromises. In this perspective, we may distinguish two kinds of boundary objects: on the one hand, models based on construction principles and design rules, on the other hand, prototypes which are the contextualization of models in specific cases and allow data analyzes and simulations in real-world experiments.

We now analyze how each kind of boundary object allows to create both theoretical and actionable knowledge and their mutual interactions.

3.1. Models and theoretical knowledge

Knowledge articulation in current conceptual framework allows to create generic knowledge which enables to respond to a plurality of cases. In this perspective, the models' elaboration creates generic knowledge by combining elements previously unconnected or developing novel ways of combining elements previously associated. According to Claveau and Tannery (2002), generic models have to articulate four kinds of knowledge: know-why, know-what, know where/when (context) and know-how (process). In this section, we discuss the different types of knowledge incorporated in the three main models developed in the KMP project.

3.1.1. The model of knowledge dynamic inside a cluster: loop 1

During the first loop (the elaboration of the KMP project), we built a generic model on the dynamic of knowledge inside a cluster (see figure 5). This first stage consists in elaborating a current conceptual framework in a field where the amount of knowledge is numerous, heterogeneous and disconnected.

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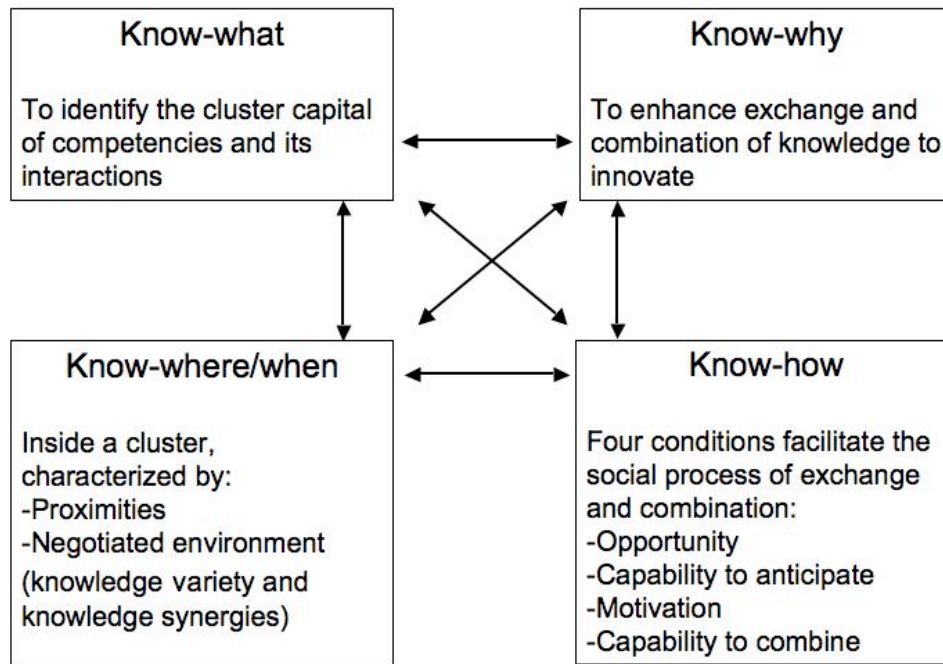


Figure 5: the generic model of knowledge dynamic inside a cluster

This generic model constitutes a basis for building construction principles and design rules in the next loop of co-design.

3.1.2. The competency model: loop 2

Both strategic and human resources literature on competencies allows to build a theoretical model of competencies. This model, complemented by a semantic web, produces a very useful solution of competencies management in the specific case of a multi-actors environment (see figure 6).

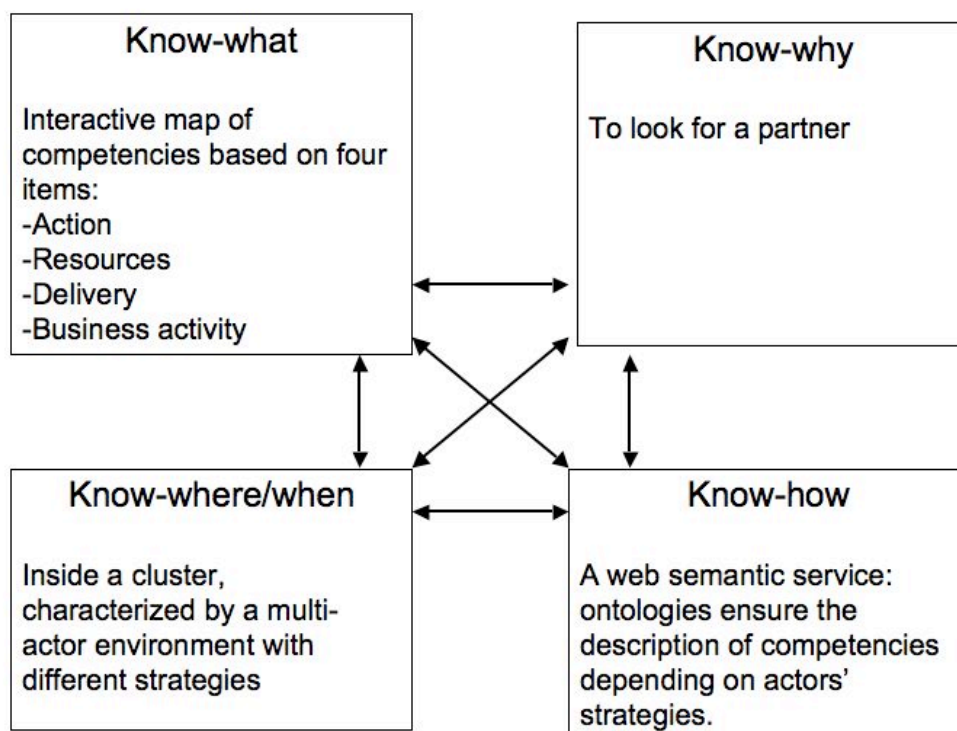


Figure 6: the generic competency model

By articulating two fields of competencies literature (strategic and human resources), we propose a new abstract representation of competencies. This abstract model, complemented with ontologies, permits to locate competencies and to compare them depending on the interest and vision of an actor, who could choose the appropriate level and combination of items relevant for him. Thus, the mapping model used does not disclose strategic aspects of the firm such as “know-how” and “know-who” but is more likely to communicate some part of competencies, a kind of “show-how” in order to identify which organizational actor has specific competencies and where they can be found (Lazaric and Thomas 2005). In our model, resources represent pieces of knowledge mobilized by competencies. Thus, ontologies of resources are crucial according to our aim, which is to exchange, and combine knowledge. Moreover, our model also allows to show the different pieces of knowledge combined in the same competency (systemic principle), the action realized (actionable principle), the result of this action (visibility principle) and the business activity in which this competency participates to create value (finality principle) (Rouby and Thomas 2004).

Thanks to ontologies, each participating actor can adopt or adapt the object (map of competencies) to suit his demand, which is essential in a multi-actor environment.

3.1.3. The model of cluster: loops 2, 3 and 4

Both Knowledge Based View and cooperation theory allow to build a generic model of cluster (see figure 7).

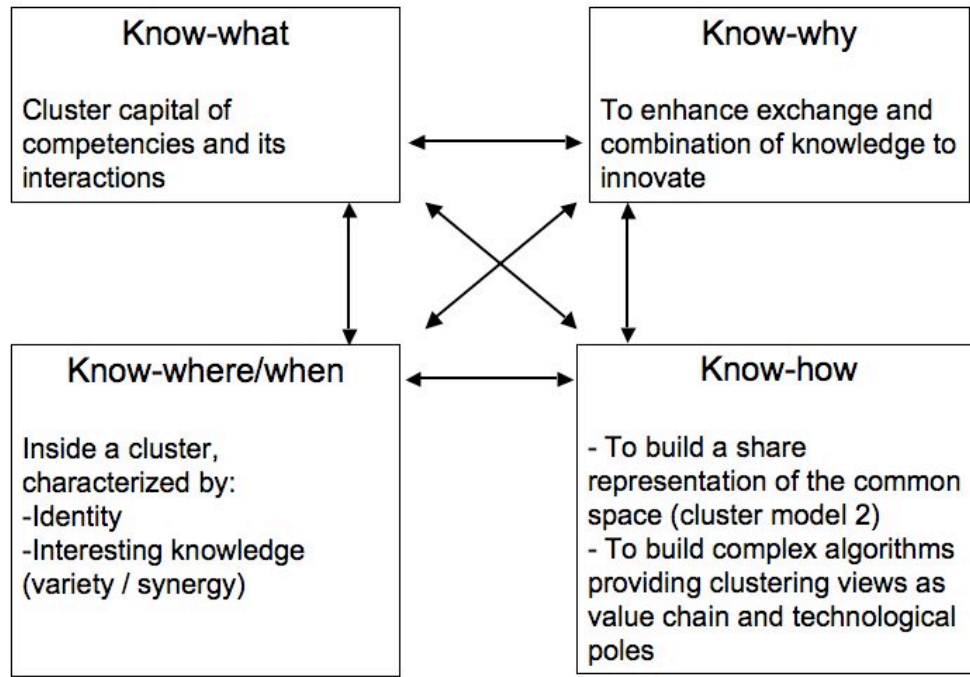


Figure 7: the generic model of cluster

On the one hand, this model provides an abstract representation of a cluster common space essential to reinforce the feeling of identity. On the other hand, it allows a first analysis of the cluster's capital of knowledge:

- The number of technological poles indicates the variety of knowledge capital. The number of competencies and of actors present in each pole is indicated in percentage points; this shows the distribution of competencies across the technological poles inside a cluster.
- The number and the weight (number of competencies and actors in percent) of the main value chain indicate the potential synergies among heterogeneous knowledge inside a cluster. Indeed, as we can measure the degree of concentration in an industry, we can measure the degree of coherence in a cluster. For example, C_5 indicates the percent of competencies inside the five main value chain of the cluster; if $C_5 > 80\%$, we can say that the coherence of the cluster's capital of knowledge is strong. Conversely, if $C_5 < 50\%$, the coherence has to be reinforced.

The building of an ICT solution needs to precisely define the concepts and to be as coherent as possible in the way they are combined. These constraints reinforce the production of

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theoretical knowledge. In our example, the fine definition of similarity and complementarity allow to enrich the concept of interesting knowledge i.e. the ‘coherence’ of a cluster.

3.2. Prototypes and actionable knowledge

The previous section shows how generic models combine and produce theoretical knowledge. Now, we want to analyze how these generic models, once implemented in an ICT solution, may produce actionable knowledge.

In the strategic field, actionable knowledge is, to a large extent, a supporting and stimulating basis for designing some desirable future situations or for debating among diverse choices. According to Claveau and Tannery (2002), actionable knowledge contributes to building vision of strategic developments, a diagnosis of current situations and rules of arguments. Our aim is now to discuss the actionable knowledge produced by two main mock-ups of interfaces built on both the competency and cluster models.

3.2.1. The competency map interfaces

In the diverse prototypes, many interfaces are based on the competency model. These interfaces allow to describe actors’ competencies and to look for a partner. They produce actionable knowledge in the three domains identified above (see figure 8).

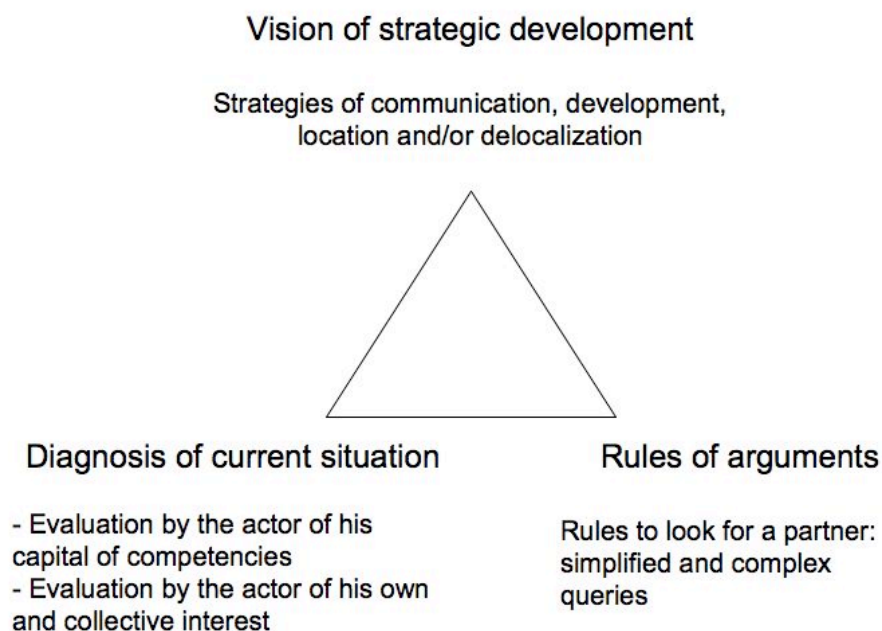


Figure 8: Actionable knowledge produced by the competency map interfaces

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Many actors outline as a main result of the KMP solution the possibility to identify its own competencies. According to three managers of different MNC's, *"the KMP solution provides a better understanding of itself, a better awareness of its firm's competency wealth"*. In many cases, actors use the KMP solution to provide their parent company with information on their competencies domain and their economic activities. *"This better visibility of its own competencies may influence communication and development strategies"* (an MNC manager). The following example illustrates the influence of the KMP competency map on the communication strategies of SME. Effectively, when Actis (SSII) discovered that the 'solaris' technology was still present in the KMP solution and ranked among the five most widely used technologies, it decided to re-integrate it in its communication strategy although it had previously decided to stop communicating on this technology. Information storage in the KMP map of competencies may also influence location strategies. For example, a US firm wanted to know *"who are the firms using the IPV6 technology"* before deciding to choose a European area to locate. Here, the KMP solution provided seven answers (January 2007).

Interfaces based on the competency model also provide rules to look for a partner. Two kinds of rules emerged:

- Simplified queries based on one competency's item. For example, queries on a technology (*"which firms are working on J2ME?"*), queries on a delivery (*"who realized video games?"*), queries on a business activity (*"which firms work for the 3G mobile sector?"* or *"which firms work on security (generic uses)?"*).
- Complex queries e.g. on a partner possessing two or n competencies and with each competency's items specified.

On the whole, the creation and implementation of a common methodology to track competencies facilitates communication and KMP users' ability to gain access to partners. For instance, we can quote the case of an executive of a famous micro-component design multinational company, who was personally committed in the KMP project as a practitioner during the co-conception process; he described us that one day he was contacted by an external person who was looking for the appropriate interlocutor in his company about a specific project. He had *a priori* no idea about what he could answer, since he remembered the KMP methodology of competencies tracking, and then he was able to find the suitable person and to give the right information to their potential partner.

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3.2.2. The cluster model interfaces

The cluster model interfaces are present in all the successive prototypes of the KMP project. They have continuously been improved during the loops of co-designing (see fig. 3 and 4). Indeed, these interfaces allow for the creation of actionable knowledge in three dimensions (see fig. 9).

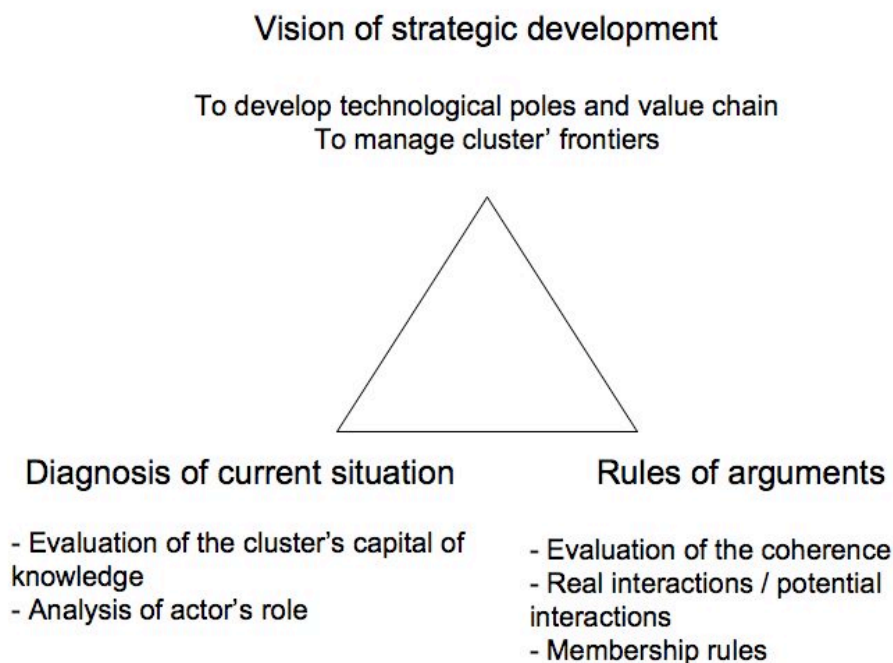


Figure 9: actionable knowledge produced by the cluster model interfaces

First, these interfaces allow to realize a diagnosis of current situation concerning the knowledge base of the cluster and the interactions of different components of knowledge. Many practitioners stress the necessity to identify mass effects i.e. the amount of similar competencies in a particular domain, the lacks of competencies in a specific area and / or complementary effects that is to say different competencies which could be complementary in a specific value chain.

Second, this diagnosis enables to create individual and collective visions of strategic development. The cluster representations enhance actors' capabilities to anticipate the created value through partnerships as they are able to select the best cooperation opportunities and perspectives (individual development). As a practitioner of the microelectronics domain says, the cluster model provides “*a better understanding of the reason why actors work together*”. These representations have also effects on access to exchange and combination, because

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identified needs within the network is, for instance, a source of attraction of newcomers. This collective vision allows to manage the cluster frontiers (see 2.2.2., loop 2).

Finally, this collective vision creates emerging rules of managing the cluster. On the one hand, as we have seen above, this vision creates rules concerning newcomers. On the other hand, this vision creates rules concerning the governance of a cluster: only stakeholders of the cluster have the possibility to access the executive board of the cluster. Recently, an executive member of the board told us of the following example: the incubator director asked to access the TV board. This access had been refused notably because incubators are supporting functions and not stakeholders (see fig. 4). This executive board member stresses that “*today, TV is a rational association; the KMP project has structured the association*”.

3.3. Boundary objects and the generative dance between theoretical and actionable knowledge

The two previous arguments underline the role of boundary objects in both the creation of theoretical knowledge (TK) and actionable knowledge (AK). We want now to stress the link between the production of these two kinds of knowledge and their mutual influence. We also want to emphasize that the generative dance between actionable and theoretical knowledge leads to build more and more robust theoretical knowledge.

3.3.1. The generative dance between theoretical and actionable knowledge: an overview

The generative dance between theoretical and actionable knowledge can be summarized as follows:

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-see 2.2.2., loops 3 and 4-) lead us to improve the cluster model –*tie 5/ fig. 10-* (see fig. 3 and 4). This new model enriches theoretical propositions especially on the concept of the cluster’s knowledge base coherence (see 3.1.3.). These new propositions have been implemented in the third prototype (loop 4) which provides a new representation of the common space and the ability to analyze the cluster’s knowledge base coherence –*tie 6/ fig. 10-*. The use of this prototype gives indications about the knowledge base of the cluster and its coherence which has an impact as well on demand and profile choice of newcomers and on trajectories of members’ strategic development, i.e. their games of interest (see 3.2.2.).

Finally, all these progressive developments and negotiations allow us to enrich the initial model of the dynamic of knowledge inside a cluster –*tie 7/ fig. 10-*.

3.3.2. The model of knowledge dynamic inside a cluster: the main result

As we have seen above, the design methodology experimented in the KMP project has progressively produced theoretical knowledge on the dynamic of knowledge inside a cluster. This model can be summarized as follows:

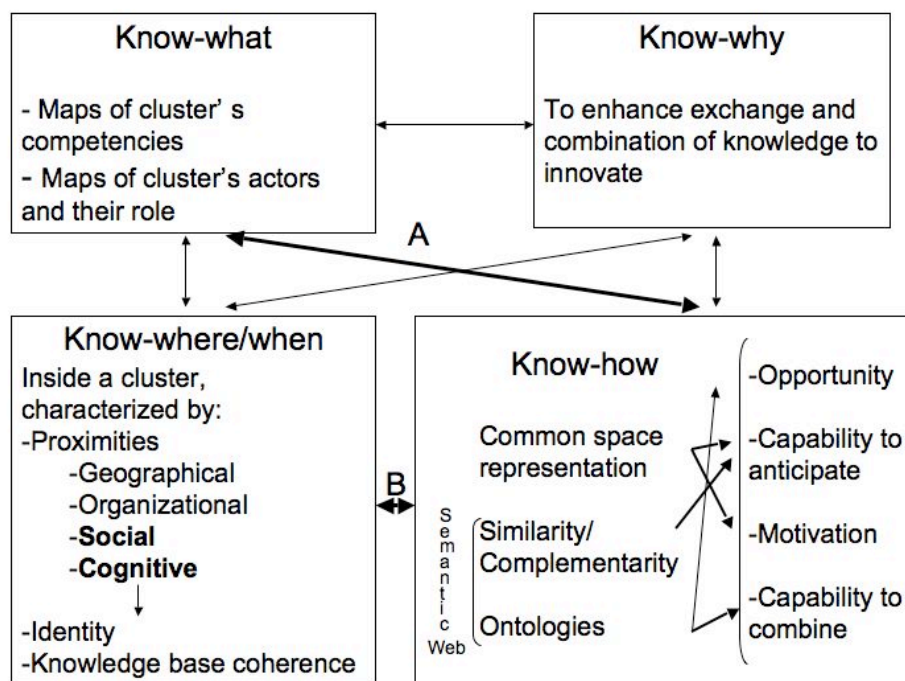


Figure 11: the generic model of knowledge dynamic inside a cluster

First, this model constitutes an improvement of the initial model of dynamic knowledge inside a cluster (see fig. 5). The main enrichments concern ties A and B. The KMP project outlines the role of social and cognitive proximities in the process of knowledge creation.

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Two construction principles have been deduced: the role of identity and the role of the knowledge base coherence. Identity requires representing a shared common space (rule 1); coherence requires calculating the degree of similarity and complementarity of the cluster's capital competencies (rule 2). These two rules serve as a basis to build two interfaces: a map of cluster's competencies associated with ontologies of competencies in order to increase the visibility of the knowledge base of the cluster and to analyze its coherence; a map of cluster's actors and their role in order to build a shared common space representation and to increase the visibility of the games of interest. These two maps, based on a semantic web service, fostered the four conditions of knowledge dynamic creation (Lazarcic and Thomas 2005; Barlatier and Thomas 2005).

Secondly, the constructions of both managerial models (competency model, cluster model) and a shared language (ontologies) have generated actionable knowledge that has reinforced the four conditions of knowledge creation. As we have seen above (see 3.2.2.), the cluster model has provided a shared business vision, including an understanding of market characteristics and customer needs in order to obtain a suitable representation of innovation opportunities (capacity to anticipate value creation). This collective self-consciousness about network short-coming had a great impact on TV identity by provoking an organizational closure. This closure allowed TV's actors to define precisely the boundary of the network and consequently its knowledge base governance (also enhancing motivation to exchange and combine). Indeed, this closure is paradoxically the source for appropriated perspectives of the network's openness (that was the case for actors of the multimedia in the SCS pole). In the same way, the competency maps reveal the exchange opportunities (see 3.2.1.). Finally, ontologies provide a shared language to facilitate the combination of competencies, as confirmed by the following extract from a TV newsletter (October 2005): “*the richness of the KMP project consists in its ontologies, i.e. in its capacity to describe all the competencies and technologies existing in the ICT world. This ontology must be regularly updated and we have to promote it as the reference at the French level*”.

On the whole, this theoretical model of dynamic knowledge inside a cluster appears to be sufficiently generic to be reused in other clusters and territories.

Conclusion

This publication aims to build a codesign methodology in which researchers and practitioners have engaged with one another to coproduce the solution and both theoretical

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and practical knowledge. In this perspective, we proposed a methodology based on two main design fields: the first one focuses on the intervention process, the second one is more ICT solution design oriented. The combination of these publications has led us to dissociate the designers' world from the users' world. The design project is then the result of the co-evolution and the convergence of both worlds: on the one hand, the world of design and a first integration of users by scenarios; on the other hand, the world of users where innovation is the art of interesting an increasing number of allies who will make the project, and notably the produced knowledge, stronger and stronger. From this point of view, our methodology underlines that design and use mutually shape one another. We have shown that these interactions between design and use allowed the coproduction of theoretical and actionable knowledge at each stage of the entire project.

Finally, we want to underline three main characteristics of our methodology:

- **An iterative cycle process:** building intermediary productions at each loop allows to articulate the multiple rationalities existing in a network. This articulation or reconciliation requires substantial labor of translation, negotiation, debate, triangulation and simplification. This labor, also called process of *interressement* (Akrich *et al.* 2002), enables the co-evolution between design and uses.
- **The role of action:** at each stage, artifacts are based on theoretical principles and rules identified by designers. In this perspective, they afford a working hypothesis (Béguin 2003). Indeed, according to Béguin (2003), the utilization of these artifacts in the users' activity constitutes an opportunity for testing the hypothesis of designers, revealing their consequences and possibly enriching or shifting them. In this perspective, use in real situation improves the validity of produced knowledge. For example, in the KMP project, the concrete and real description of competencies has increased the trust in the competency model (very precise without revealing strategic know-how); it has proven its usefulness when looking for a partner and it has finally led to non-anticipated uses (awareness on its own competencies) or to emergent uses (calculation of similarity and complementarity). Action is crucial to develop mutual learning between designers and users, or, in other words, between scientists and practitioners.
- **The role of boundary objects:** as intermediary productions, boundary objects play a critical role in both the iterative cycle process and the mutual learning process. In this perspective, these objects incorporate all the knowledge (TK and AK) produced during the design process and allow their interactions. At the beginning of the KMP project, these objects served as

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mediators between actors: they incorporated a low level of knowledge and essentially a theoretical one. Progressively, the level of both theoretical and actionable knowledge incorporated in boundary objects has increased, reducing at the same time the different trajectories of the project development. To conclude, we want to stress two characteristics of boundary objects. First, they progressively incorporate knowledge that is more and more generic in order to increase the ability to use this solution in different contexts and to produce, in each specific context, new actionable knowledge. Here, boundary objects allow to support a generative dance between knowledge and knowing (Cook and Brown 1999). The evolution of the common space provides an illustrative example of this phenomenon. The first representation is the main TV value chain. This value chain is highly contextual and specific to the TV case. As such, it enables a communication process to emerge rapidly. However, this representation cannot be used in other clusters. Conversely, the last common space representation (see fig. 4) is based on very generic knowledge (concept of similarity and complementarity) and can be re-used in all clusters. Secondly, it is interesting to use computing models as boundary objects. Indeed, as such, they offer immediate representations of the analyzed situation (Chanal *et al.* 1997). For example, representations of pole or value chain to evaluate the coherence of the knowledge base. These representations or feedbacks are a basis for practitioners - designers communications and enrich the knowledge creation process.

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